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In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY I. 33, I called attention to certain inaccuracies of language which mar classical text-books and classical teaching. At the risk of being charged with serving *crambe repeta* I am returning to the theme.

We are prone to emphasize the cultural value of our subject, to insist that a careful study of Greek and Latin will contribute materially to a right mastery of English and to the development of logical modes of thought. It rests upon us therefore to be ourselves embodiments of the virtues the acquisition of which we stress as part of the outcome of classical study rightly pursued. The heathen are ever raging furiously round about us, seeking what they may devour; our English, therefore, should at all times be careful, exact, logical, fine.

But is it? How is it with those who have written specifically on Latin grammar? The obligation to show in our English that we have profited by our study of the Classics rest heavily on us all, but on none more heavily than on the writer of a Latin or Greek grammar.

Now in a certain Latin grammar I read as follows: "The Ablative of Separation is sometimes construed with, sometimes without, a preposition". It does not seem to me finical or hypercritical to insist that such a statement is unworthy of a good classical student. The moment the preposition enters into the linguistic complex we cease to have an ablative of separation; what we have then is an expression of separation consisting of a preposition and an ablative. We ought to express the facts somewhat as follows: "Separation is expressed in Latin by (1) the Ablative of Separation, and by (2) a preposition with the Ablative. The first form (1), the Ablative of Separation, is used . . . ; the other form (2), a preposition with the Ablative, is used The prepositions involved here are". I do not believe that the mastery of such a statement would involve an initial outlay of study greater than that which the student is now compelled to make. The form I suggest is, *nisi fallor*, truthful and logical.

What I have said applies equally to statements that the Ablative of the Agent takes *a* or *ab*, or that the Ablative of Accompaniment may or may not have *cum*, or that the Ablative of Place sometimes takes a preposition. There is no Ablative of the Agent in Latin. Agency is expressed in Latin,

normally, by a prepositional phrase consisting of *a* (*ab*) and the Ablative. The Ablative of Accompaniment and the Local Ablative never have a preposition; certain complexes which help to express accompaniment and place have a preposition with the Ablative.

Our commentaries often sin against the laws of English. Every editor should see to it, it seems to me, that wherever it is possible, his notes shall consist of full and perfect sentences. Yet how often we see the lemma of the note followed by a colon and the words "referring to", etc. Is this English? It is easy enough to make the lemma itself in such cases subject of a sentence, and to write " . . . refers to", etc. We ought never, even for an instant, to relax our vigilance in such matters as the form of our utterances in notes, introductions and more formal treatises on the subjects which occupy our attention and that of our students. We cannot hope to develop in them respect for form if we ourselves show constantly a disregard of accuracy and logic in our modes of statement.

Our English cousins, who are supposed to be shining evidences of the cultural value of classical studies, sin at times even worse than we do. I have seen in English classical books much bad English. In matters of form, too, their books leave much to be desired. Some editors—e. g. Munro and Mayor—have a horror of commas, and print their notes in most tantalizing fashion. Another trying practice, sometimes imitated in American books, is that of printing in the body of an explanatory note a string of citations from classical authors, the string preceded and followed by a comma.

Another practice to which I take exception is that of saying that such and such an expression found in the text is "used for" or "is for" some other expression. As a matter of fact, does any writer ever use one expression for another? Would it not be more truthful to say rather that the writer might have used another expression, or that the expression commonly used to indicate the idea we find in the text is thus and so? No good writer would employ at one time in one sentence all the modes of expression that would embody his idea: literature depends in large part on the careful selection of the one right form.

The Stoics, by contemplating the beauty and order of the external world, arrived at the doctrine that

virtue is *convenienter naturae vivere*. So we students of the Classics, by contemplating the beauty and order, the logical clearness and accuracy of the ancient classical tongues, should arrive at the doctrine, to be exemplified always in practice, that beauty, order, niceness, logical clearness, fineness should mark all that we write or publish. C. K.

AIDS IN TEACHING CAESAR¹

The struggle for success in teaching Caesar often reminds me of Edison's definition of success in life, when he says it consists in 2 per cent. inspiration and 98 per cent. perspiration. We all know about the perspiration, but the inspiration may not come so easily. Yet if our boys and girls are ever to come out victorious from grappling with Caesar's ablatives absolute, laying siege to his gerundives, and fighting the barbarian subjunctive to a finish, they must be given, somehow or other, a little of the courage and enthusiasm that Caesar inspired in his soldiers. How easily this could be accomplished if the pupils could only see in the text what the old Roman saw—a moving picture of thrilling dramatic action, where the tramp of soldiers' feet, the cry of battle and the shout of victory could almost be heard! But they seem to think there is nothing to be evolved but an endless confusion of camps, marches and grammatical constructions. Even when one tries to get a little spirit into the work, and has at last succeeded in arousing interest, some member of the class suddenly falls sprawling into a grammatical pitfall and all progress is stopped. In fact the boys and girls are so continually being worsted in hand to hand conflict with almost every part of speech, that anything more than drill in forms seems hopeless.

Yet some time ago I determined that if anything could be found to create an interest and lessen the drudgery, I would find it or die! And after various experiments I discovered a few practical aids that I could get time for, which I will explain and then show some slides in illustration. Since one of the great difficulties of the Caesar year is lack of time, let me say in passing, that I have found in my class that a short lesson definitely assigned and well learned pays, for it both encourages the pupil and also gives time for sight reading, or for study in class on the next lesson, when the outline of the story can be seen, difficulties pointed out, and careless methods of work corrected. And since the knowledge of Latin a pupil has really amounts to only so much as he has power to use—constituting his tools, as it were, for future work—this class-study seems to me especially valuable.

Perhaps this paper should have been entitled Prep-

arations for Studying Caesar, for a great deal of interest can be aroused, I find, during the first year of Latin, and it is here that I count on making real progress. I start with my girls in the beginners' class and make them an offer. I say to them "Which is your hardest day?"

"Thursday!" comes the answer in a chorus that leaves no uncertainty.

"Very well", I say. "Now if you will give me fifteen minutes on Wednesday afternoons after school, I will assign you no lesson for Thursdays".

With true American scent for what appears to be a good bargain, they accept my offer.

This seemingly perilous experiment I work out as follows: the Thursday class, with no preparation, is regarded as a study period where teacher and pupils together do advance work, to be recited as review the following day. In this way no time is lost in class work, and the bad habits of study mentioned before can be replaced by better.

In the fifteen minutes they give me on Wednesdays, I read to them during the first semester, what they are pleased to call a story. It is on Roman life, with a few characters strung together for a thread of narrative. The scene, laid in the home of an old Senator of the late Republic, and the story opening with the scurry of slaves in the morning, cleaning the house as the first beams of the sun strike the statue of Jupiter in his great quadriga on the Capitol, take them into a Rome full of life. They follow the old Senator and his friends to the Forum, the senate, the chariot-race and the bath; they see him reading and writing in his library, giving a banquet and attending the funeral of one of his friends.

This glimpse seems to surprise the girls into realizing that the Romans really did eat and drink, get excited and grieve just as we do to-day. I clinch the subject by asking the English department to let the girls write some of their compositions on the Romans, a request that is always most cheerfully granted; and I find that the experiment of only four prepared lessons a week, arranged on the plan I have mentioned, seems to produce only favorable results.

The second semester I take up Caesar and his army. On the first Wednesday I explain the political situation at Rome in the time of Caesar, a period which they will not yet have reached in their Roman history, giving it of course much condensed and in one-syllable English. The second week I take up Caesar, trying to make them see his wonderful personality, the man who could be one day a fashionable elegant at Rome, and the next take forced marches and sleep on the cold damp ground, a hardy soldier; at one time planning with that keen, far-sighted brain the kingship of the Empire, at another, rushing like a common soldier into the thick of the

¹This paper was presented at the Second Annual Meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Washington, D. C., on April 25, 1908.

fight, or with a single brief speech changing a panicky army, terror-stricken at the reports about the ferocious Germans, to enthusiastic legions wild with desire to get at the enemy.

After this comes the army, its officers, soldiers, marching, fighting, and camp-making. And here the work of the girls comes in. A proposal to make some spears and shields usually meets with generous response. If not, the suggestion of a Latin Club to meet some Saturday morning generally accomplishes it, especially if the magic word refreshments is mentioned, or, in extreme cases, a club-pin. With a little oversight much may be done. Swords can be cut from a piece of soft pine according to a good pattern—and there are almost always two or three girls in a class able to use tools without cutting off their fingers. A spear can be made from a clothes-pole or even an old broomstick, plus a long tin horn, the mouthpiece of the horn being magically transformed by a tinsmith into a fine spearhead. The shield, with a frame of two strips of lath and the hoops of a sugar barrel—for we do not try to make it of solid wood—is covered with brown cardboard, cambric, or canvas to represent leather, the metal rim and thunderbolts of Jove being represented by gold paper. Helmets of canvas lined with felt are covered with black or brown paper, and those of the officers decorated with a crest of horse hair if available, or of red or black feathers. One of my girls this year furnished an old red ostrich plume, which, although it may not have been quite correct historically, certainly made a very grand appearance. One can have a battle-flag of red silk with fringe of raveled cord, topped by a cardboard eagle covered with silver paper; or a standard of the maniples with all of its queer designs either in wood or cardboard, fastened on to a long pole; but, more than all, a knapsack with real wheat in a real bag, a real blanket, two rampart stakes and a cooking-pan, make one almost feel one can hear the trumpet order to march.

Best of all, however, the girls enjoy dressing dolls like Roman soldiers. Slim, dark-haired, jointed dolls can be bought anywhere for twenty-five cents. Usually boy-dolls may be found; if not, the others with hair cropped and a few masculine wrinkles painted in make good subjects. Then comes recourse to numerous mothers' piece-bags, shops are ransacked for colored papers with which to decorate clothes and armor, book-straps and old kid gloves are produced for sandals—and these things combined with a little ingenuity soon furnish Roman generals, lieutenants, soldiers of the legion and light-armed aids, which, though they may not look as if they had just come from a military tailor, still inspire great admiration in the hearts of their makers.

During the last part of this first year of Latin, we do what connected reading we can from an ab-

stract of the Helvetian War. In such a narrative, the principal characters, freed from the detail that surrounds them in the text, stand out boldly. Orgetorix on his treacherous mission, with his appearance as a mighty noble at the trial and his probable suicide, Dumnorix making trouble for his unoffending brother, and Labienus, the trusty lieutenant, soon become well-known acquaintances and call forth a lively interest. At the beginning of this work we paste outline maps of Gaul inside the back cover of the text-book, and fill them in with rivers, tribes and towns as we meet with them. This and the comparison of the number of the Helvetians to the population of some city that they know seem to make the situation fairly clear to the class. I ask them, for instance, to imagine what it would mean to us in Baltimore, to have the whole population of Washington, men, women, and children, and 40,000 more, swarming across our hills and fields. In such a way, they see what the migration of so great a host meant. To avoid such startling translations as "on the next day Caesar marched five thousand miles", I ask the girls to pace a mile in their walks. True, I get distances varying from one-fourth to three-fourths of a mile only, for like Ascanius, they trot along with childish steps, but I find it likely to fix the idiom. And when toward the end of this first year, I have finished with the army, I take two of the remaining Wednesday afternoons to read them the story of the Helvetians and Ariovistus from that wonderfully fascinating account in Holmes's *Caesar's Conquest of Gaul*. The outline of the story, taken thus, seems to give them an impetus, for they take up Book I of Caesar at the beginning of their second year with interest. The indirect discourse in this book we translate to the class at first, coming back to it for study later, which accomplishes the double purpose of giving them the difficult work when a little better prepared for it, and keeping the story moving rapidly enough to sustain interest.

When we begin to read of Caesar's making camps, we follow the plan of the boy in Mr. Squeer's spelling class, who when he had spelled c-l-e-a-n, clean, w-i-n, win, d-e-r, der, winder, went and did it. When we study about camps we go and make one. A moulding or drawing-board furnishes a good foundation; trench and rampart are made of clay, with small whittled stakes, wall and gates of cardboard (if we are representing a permanent camp), tiny tents of brown paper, one tent representing the position of each cohort—and the camp is done! Some of it can be made mornings before school, by those that live near, a bit at noon by some that stay for lunch, as, for instance, the little tents which take but two or three minutes each. In fact a great deal of this work can be done without much effort, the harder parts being relegated to some Saturday mornings or the short vacations.

When we get to the thrilling account of the Nervii, we make, after school, a sand battlefield. The first time we did this, the only sand available was from a large flower-pot, the Sabis river was of powdered chalk, and the woods of bits of hemlock twigs; but the little match-stick soldiers, painted red for the Romans and green for the enemy, charged and retreated under their tiny flags and standards none the less bravely.

The sea-fights with the Veneti can be explained by a sand map of the coast with its long, low-lying points, where the Veneti escaped Caesar by skipping so nimbly from one to another; and toy boats to which have been added boat-hooks and boarding-bridges, when floated in a pan of water, show clearly the way in which Caesar at last outwitted the enemy.

The interest with which the girls flock in early to look at these things, and the pride they take in their part of the work surely pays for the little effort of all concerned. These are some of the aids I have found it possible to use, not at all as substitutes for the unceasing work in forms and translation so necessary during the first two years, but as an outside means of arousing interest, something to furnish, as it were, oil for the wheels¹.

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THE SAALBURG COLLECTION²

Washington University has recently come into possession of one of the most interesting portions of the admirable educational exhibit of the German Empire at the late Exposition—the collection of models of the Roman fortified camp Saalburg, near Homburg, Germany, and the reproductions of the armor, tools, implements, articles of dress and the many other objects found during the excavations which have been conducted there during the past thirty years. The Praetorium of this camp has been reconstructed by order of the present Kaiser, and converted into a museum. It was for this museum on the site of the Saalburg that the collection was originally prepared under the direction of L. Jacobi, who had had charge of the excavations and is now director of the museum. The interest evinced in the collection by several prominent Americans induced the Kaiser to send it to the Exposition as a part of the German Educational Exhibit and to delay its installation in the Saalburg until after its

return from St. Louis. Through the generosity of Messrs. Adolphus Busch and Robert S. Brookings, it was purchased from the German Government for Washington University, and a duplicate set will be made for the Saalburg Museum. The University has therefore the rare good fortune to possess a collection unique in this country, and with only one counterpart in the world. The exhibit has been installed in the west room on the first floor of the Library Building, and is now open to the public.

The following account of the Saalburg and of the line of fortifications of which it formed a part has been prepared with the object of giving to the readers of the Bulletin in brief compass the topographical and historical setting and such other data as may serve to explain the significance of the collection. What follows is based upon the two-volume work on the Saalburg by L. Jacobi³, the Curator of the Saalburg Museum.

It has been pointed out by Mommsen in connection with the history of the Roman Empire that while we have a detailed account of each of the Roman Emperors, the real history of the Empire as a whole has never been written; nor can this history be written from the literary sources alone. For the greater portion of any true account of the development of any given province of the Roman Empire, we are dependent upon the story told by the monuments, and by the ruins which have escaped more successfully than written history the mutilating hands of time. In the history of the provinces of Britain and Germany in particular, which were on the outskirts of the Roman world, is this kind of information extremely important.

Among the monuments of Germany which tell a story not to be gleaned from written books, the most extensive is the Roman Limes, or, as the Germans call it, Pfahlgraben, the line of fortifications, which for 336 miles formed the boundary between Romanized southern Germany and the still barbarous tribes of the north. This frontier line is still traceable through its entire length, from Nieheim on the Danube to Hoenningen on the Rhine. It consisted of two sections. The first or Rhaetian section, built of stone-masonry of about seven feet in height and three feet in thickness, extended westward from Nieheim on the Danube to Lorch, between Aalen and Stuttgart, a distance of 108 miles. The second section, the Limes of upper Germany, was 228 miles long. Starting from Lorch, it ran in a northwesterly direction to Miltenberg on the Main. From Miltenberg to Gross Krotzenburg, near Hanau, the Main formed the boundary. From this point the Limes extended northwards until it crossed the valley of the Wetter; then with a turn to the southwest it

¹The slides used in illustration were: an ancient Roman house, temple, street, a restoration of the Forum and of the Circus Maximus; Roman and Gallic soldiers, Roman sandals from the Museum at Saalburg; Gallic swords from that of St. Germain-en-Laye; Caesar's battlefields; and the restoration of the Roman camp at Saalburg.

²This article is reprinted from *The Bulletin of the Washington University Association, Washington University, for 1905, pages 129-136.* Information concerning this highly interesting and valuable collection seems not to be as widely disseminated among classical teachers as the importance of the collection would warrant; hence this reprint.—C. K.

³*Das Römische Kastell Saalburg*, by L. Jacobi, member of the Limes Commission.

followed the range of the Taunus to a point a few miles northwest of Wiesbaden, whence it turns once more in a northerly direction, and reaches the Rhine near Hoenningen.

This latter section, to whose line of fortifications the Saalburg belonged, consisted of a trench and an earthen rampart. The trench is still in places six feet deep, and the rampart about six feet high. The slope from the bottom of the trench to the top of the rampart presented a front of about eighteen feet. Built in the rampart or immediately behind it there have already been found the stone foundations of 600 small towers. They occur at intervals of approximately half a mile and are always in evidence at angles in the line of the Limes. They were built in two stories, the first of stone and the second of wood, and evidently served as watch-towers guarding the entire line of the Limes (a model is included in the collection). Directly behind the Limes, and at a distance from each other of about nine miles, there were located the large fortified camps of the type of the Saalburg and between each pair of larger camps there was placed a minor camp or fort with walls of stone surmounted by a breastwork of timbers.

The Limes as thus described, with its trench and earthen rampart, its watch-towers, and fortified camps with walls of stone, dates from about the year 139 A. D., in the reign of Antoninus Pius. There were, however, at least two previous stages in the development of this line of defenses, the earliest of which goes back to the campaigns of Drusus in the reign of Augustus. Until the reign of Domitian the boundary was not formally defined, and was protected by a series of fortified camps protected by earthworks. In the reign of that emperor the boundary was carefully surveyed and the frontier further guarded by the watch-towers. Finally, under Antoninus Pius, the frontier was completed, the trench and rampart were constructed, and the camps permanently fortified by stone walls instead of by earthworks only.

On consulting the map, one sees at once that for the section from Hoenningen to Gross Krotzenburg the natural frontier was not the line of the Limes, but the rivers Rhine and Main, and one wonders why the Romans, who, with good sense, usually chose natural boundaries, gave them up in this case for an artificial frontier in order to secure the comparatively insignificant strip of territory thus gained. It would seem that this portion of the Limes, with its series of forts, was built, not to serve as a strategic frontier of the Roman Empire, but to protect the Romanized tribe of Mattiaci of the Taunus region from the Chatti and other barbarian tribes to the north and east. In this case we have a further piece of evidence to be added to that gath-

ered from the monumental remains of Africa and of the other provinces, that the Romans under the Empire did, after all, administer the provinces in the interests of the governed.

Unlike the wall of Hadrian in Britain, the Limes cannot in itself have been built entirely with a view to military defense. The real defensive strength was centered in the fortified camps and the small forts. The trench and rampart would not present a serious obstacle to the passage of a company of foot soldiers, or a sufficient defense for a small force of soldiers behind it, though it would be an impassable barrier for a baggage train. Its purpose seems to have been partly to furnish a visible boundary that was always in view of the watch-towers, whose sentries could report to the fortified camps the fact that any marauding parties had crossed it, and partly to check smuggling by making it necessary for laden wagons in crossing the frontier to take the main roads on which provision had been made for the collection of customs on foreign goods.

The Saalburg Castellum may be taken as a type of all the larger fortified camps which were placed along the line of the Limes at intervals of about nine miles. This outpost of the Roman Empire was situated about five miles north of Homburg on the Taunus range. It lay about 200 yards behind the Limes, and its dimensions were 500 x 750 feet. Though constructed on the plan of a regular Roman camp, it combines with this plan the strength of a fortress. The fortification consisted of a battlemented wall of stone, six feet thick and twelve feet in height (fifteen feet to the top of the battlements), behind which was an embankment ten feet high and wide enough to admit of all the necessary movements of the defenders; in front of the wall was a double trench, each portion of which was twenty-five feet wide and ten feet deep. The camp has the usual four gates, each of which was flanked on either side by stone towers two stories in height which, together with the galleries connecting them, commanded the gate. In the center of the enclosure of the camp was the Praetorium. This was a two-story building of stone, 200 x 132 feet, built about two open courts which correspond to the atrium and peristyle of the Roman house. The portion of this building nearest to the Praetorian gate seems to have served as the quarters of the officers in command, while a large hall in the rear served as a drill hall for the soldiers in bad weather. The portion of the area of the camp in front of the Praetorium was called the Praetentura, and was occupied by tents of the soldiers, while the portion in the rear, the Retentura, was devoted to the officers' quarters and to buildings connected with the Commissariat. A circular track in front of the Praetorium seems to have served for the exercising

of the horses, as is proven by the parts of horse-shoes found there.

History records practically nothing with regard to this camp. Considerable historical information is supplied by the coins, 2,500 in number, and a number of inscriptions found in and about it. These show that although the first occupation of the site by a Roman camp goes back to the time of Augustus, its permanent occupation by a fortified camp began about 80 A. D., that its last reconstruction took place about 217 A. D., and that it was abandoned by the year 280, when the Romans were apparently forced by the more virile peoples of the north to withdraw from the region of the Taunus. Internal evidence, such as the various layers of ashes and other debris found in the excavations, goes to show that the camp had been in the brunt of actual war, and that, while it had no doubt seen long periods of peace, it had been stormed more than once. The defenders for this far-off post were drawn for the most part from the Eighth and Twenty-second Legions, as is shown by inscriptions.

About the Castellum itself had gathered in time of peace a population consisting of sutlers and tradespeople, who found it profitable to deal with the garrison. In time this settlement came to have the proportions of a small town. Among the buildings excavated are a Roman villa, a large market hall, and the foundations of a row of wine shops and restaurants. These buildings are of great interest as showing how the Romans adapted themselves to the climatic conditions of Germany, to which they were not accustomed. The method of heating is especially instructive. It is an extension of the system employed by the Romans in heating their baths, namely, that of allowing the heat from a furnace to circulate about the rooms by means of hollow floors and flues in hollow walls. The objects found in the excavations of this settlement, and more particularly in the wells, are very numerous, and more interesting than those discovered in the camp itself. These wells were many in number, and in the course of time became receptacles for all sorts of things that were accidentally dropped into them. The mineral properties of the water have helped to preserve these objects, even though they were made of such perishable material as wood, leather or cloth. The thousand and one articles found in these wells range all the way from coins to old shoes, and comprise almost all the utensils, tools, implements, and articles of dress in use among the Romans on the frontier. They are a valuable addition to our knowledge of Roman frontier civilization. The collection of tools in use by carpenters, masons, engineers, etc., is especially complete, and it is interesting to see that practically all the hand tools still used in these professions have their proto-

type in the implements in use among the Romans at work upon this outpost of Roman civilization. In the majority of them the form is surprisingly similar to that of tools in use to-day.

Outside of the camp and to the south, there was discovered a cemetery, which is also rich in finds. The bodies of the soldiers were first cremated in a building for that purpose and the ashes deposited in small graves, square or circular, by the side of the public roads, as was the Roman custom, or in burial houses also erected by the roadside. Together with the ashes of the dead there were placed in the grave small vessels containing food and drink, coins, and many small pieces of armor, dress or ornament or such things as the dead man especially prized during life; and, as the number of graves excavated has already reached a total of 250, the number of such pieces found is very great.

When the excavations were begun in 1853 the Saalburg was a neglected ruin in the forest which had been used as a quarry for building materials for two centuries. Since 1870 the excavations have been prosecuted systematically under Cohrsen, now dead, and L. Jacobi. Under the patronage of the present Emperor, the camp is being reconstructed in its entirety, partly from a study of the existing ruins, and partly from a study of the other fortresses along the Limes, which have the same plan. Part of the outer wall has already been constructed to its full height. The same has been done for the Praetorium, which is to be used as a museum. To give the visitor a better idea of the original appearance of the objects when new, a set of reproductions was made to be placed in the museum beside the originals. It is this set which was exhibited at the Exposition, and which the University has secured.

This collection includes a complete set of photographs of the ruins; models of the camp, the Praetorium, the gates, the watch-towers on the Limes, and of the heating system of the villa; a set of reproductions of the articles found there—tools, implements, utensils, armor, dress, and ornaments, and other small objects—together with numerous photographs of the originals; and the tables and cases are so made as to reproduce the effect of the furniture in vogue among the Romans of that day.

By means of this collection, students of the Classics in the University, as well as those in neighboring schools, will have a unique opportunity to see in concrete and picturesque form much of the outward setting of Roman life and also to gain an idea of the advancement of the Romans in many of the minor crafts. It is the desire of the Latin Department to make this valuable possession of the University as widely serviceable as possible to all engaged in the teaching or study of the literature and history of Rome.

F. W. SHIPLEY

TWO FOREIGN CLASSICAL SCHOLARS AT COLUMBIA

An announcement that has just been made officially by Columbia University will prove interesting to all students of the Classics. It has been arranged that during the second term of the present academic year—that is to say, from February to May, 1909—Professor Christian K. F. Hülsen will be in residence at Columbia as a regular member of the teaching staff. As such he will give a course in the topography of Rome, meeting his students twice a week, and will also conduct a seminar relating to the general subject of Roman monumental art. In like manner, during the second term of the academic year 1909-10, the well-known English classicist, Dr. James S. Reid, will reside at Columbia, giving several courses of lectures.

Professor Hülsen comes from Rome, where he is Secretary to the Imperial German Archaeological Institute, holding a professorship in that famous home of original investigation. He lectures there every winter on Roman topography; and there is no one else so well qualified to do this. Graduating from the University at Berlin more than twenty-five years ago, as a favorite pupil of Mommsen, he went to Rome, first as a student and afterwards as a Fellow. For a quarter of a century, he has devoted himself to research in the fascinating subject which he has made his own.

Even before leaving Berlin, he began editing the sixth volume of the Latin Corpus Inscriptionum. It would be impracticable to enumerate here the many papers which he has contributed to German and Italian scientific periodicals. He furnishes an annual review of the Roman excavations to the pages of the *Mitteilungen des Deutschen Archäologischen Instituts*. His most important work, *Das Forum Romanum*, which he wrote in 1904, has been translated into French, Italian and English. Two years ago he published the third part of Jordan's *Topographie der Stadt Rom im Alterthum*; and in 1907, *La Pianta di Roma Dell' Anonimo Einsidlense and La Roma di Ciriaco D'Ancona*.

All who have ever had the good fortune to be enrolled in the American School of Classical Studies in Rome will be delighted again to meet Professor Hülsen on this side of the ocean; for among the privileges which such students have enjoyed has always been the opportunity of hearing his course of lectures at the German Institute. Dr. Hülsen, with characteristic generosity, admits not only the regular students of the Institute, but any others who wish to hear him, even though the class is sometimes inconveniently large and difficult to mobilize, as when a large area has to be covered—for instance, in studying the Palatine. Professor Hülsen is the Institute's librarian; and students of all nationalities are not merely admitted, but receive a

gracious welcome. He is in the library from ten in the morning until about five o'clock in the afternoon; and although his industry is phenomenal, he never seems to lack the leisure to give help to anyone who needs it.

Dr. Reid, who comes in 1910, is Professor of Ancient History in the University of Cambridge, and Fellow of Gonville and Caius College in the same University. He has held fellowships and lectureships in Christ's College and Pembroke College. He is perhaps best known by his scholarly edition of Cicero's *Academica*, and by his translation of the *De Finibus*. He is besides a voluminous contributor to scientific periodicals on classical subjects. He has never visited this country before; but a great many American scholars enjoy his personal friendship and will give him a hearty welcome. The precise topics upon which he will lecture at Columbia have not yet been announced; but it is understood that he will give at least two courses—one in Greek and one in Latin. He will also hold informal conferences with graduate students enrolled in the Classical Department.

The following translations and answers to questions have been contributed by Miss Mary B. Harwood, of The Girls' Latin School, Baltimore:

Aeneid 3. 158 *idem venturos tollemus in astra nepotes*: "In the same way we shall raise your future ancestors to the skies".

Aeneid 4. 578-579 *et sidera caelo dextra feras*: "Mayst thou bear the stars in the skies in thy right hand".

Aeneid 6. 304 *iam senior, sed cruda deo viridisque senectus*: "He now an old man and yet a green young god".

Teacher: "What do you think of Aeneas's attitude toward Dido?"

Pupil: "It goes to prove that affection always is *twisted*".

Aeneid 11. 180-190 *ter maestum funeris ignem lustrare in equis ululatusque ore dedere*.

"Three times the devouring flame leaps around the horses and they neigh".

In a recent examination on the Eclogues of Vergil one student rendered Eclogue 10. 18 *et formosus oves ad flumina pavit Adonis* by "and the beautiful cow is panting by the river of Adonis". Another gave for this line "and Adonis the most beauteous of the flock goes to the river". Eclogue 7. 12-13 *praetextit arundine ripas Mincius eque sacra resonant examina quercu* another student translated by "and the breathless horses make the sacred oak resound". In an answer to a certain question this latter student revealed how she reached her rendering. She misread *examina* as *exanima* and derived it from "ex, 'out', + *anima*, 'spirit', 'breath', = 'breathless'"; she evidently took *eque* as from *ecus*. C. K.

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